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ABSTRACT

The report describes the implementation and continuing documentation of a Japanese second language program in a laboratory elementary school at the University of Pittsburgh (Pennsylvania). The structure of the curriculum and instructional strategies used are described for each of the program's 2 years, and results of student assessments and surveys of students, parents, and teachers are discussed. Adjustments made in the program's second year in response to issues arising in the first year are also noted. Documentation instruments, data collection procedures, and results are also detailed, including vocabulary testing, oral interviews, learner questionnaires, teacher assessments of students' language development, parent questionnaires, and reflections of the Japanese teacher and other primary teachers in the school on the effects of the program. From these results, implications are drawn for policy formation, the role of the program in the school's culture, curriculum and materials development, articulation, and the utility of current Japanese proficiency measures. (MSE)

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ED 386 954

Documenting an Exemplary Japanese FLES Program: In Pursuit of Goals 2000[1]

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Introduction

Recent federal legislation, Goals 2000: Educate America Act, calls for American students to leave grades 4, 8, and 12 having "demonstrated competence over challenging subject matter including English, mathematics, science, [and] foreign languages, ..." If this goal is to be realized, the number of foreign language programs at all levels will need to be significantly expanded and improved. This is particularly true at the elementary level. By expanding foreign language instruction in the elementary school, students will have an extended opportunity to achieve the goals which are currently being developed as part of the draft National Standards for Foreign Language Education.

Five major issues emerge when considering foreign language education in the elementary school for majority language speakers, that is for speakers of English as a mother tongue: (1) which model of instruction to implement--an immersion or FLES model; (2) the age at which foreign language instruction should begin; (3) realistic proficiency expectations for elementary school students working within a given model; (4) the choice of language(s) in which instruction should be offered; and (5) how best to assess the language proficiency of young children.

Studies indicate that, as a nation, we are generally receptive to teaching foreign languages in the elementary school (Eddy, 1980; Rhodes & Oxford, 1988). Forty percent of the American population believes that there should be a foreign language requirement in the elementary schools and seventy-five percent think that foreign language study should be an option available in the elementary school (Eddy, 1980). However, a major objection to incorporating foreign language instruction into the elementary school curriculum is that there is not enough time in the instructional day (Baranick & Markham, 1986). In building foreign language competence for the nation, the issue is whether to offer limited foreign language exposure to many students (for example, by offering FLES programs in a large majority of schools) or to provide fewer students with more intensive exposure through immersion or two-way bilingual programs (Rhodes et al., 1989; Tucker & Crandall, 1989).

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Choice of program model. The issue of which program model to select is a complex one. Research clearly shows that the immersion model results in greater proficiency gains than the FLES model (Campbell, Gray, Rhodes & Snow, 1985; Clyne, 1986; Rhodes, Thompson & Snow, 1989). However, immersion is not always the model of choice. Immersion programs require a greater commitment of time and resources than FLES programs. In an immersion program, classroom teachers, as well as special subject teachers--art, music, and physical education--need to have native or near-native proficiency in the target language, formal training in immersion instruction, and be certified elementary school teachers. In a FLES model, the classroom teacher may teach the foreign language or a language specialist may be brought in to provide the foreign language instruction for an entire school population. Immersion programs typically offer from 50% to 100% of total instructional time in the target language (Curtain & Pesola, 1988). Textbooks and materials compatible with district objectives across the curriculum must be available in the target language. FLES models, on the other hand, usually allocate from 5% to 15% of instructional time to target language learning and many FLES programs operate with activities and materials designed in-house by the FLES teacher. From an administrator's perspective, FLES programs are viewed as easier and less expensive to start up. From a student's or parent's perspective, a FLES program requires less commitment to learning the foreign language. Children meet content objectives in English; the foreign language class is often a marginalized, curricular "special." And in this regard it is interesting that immersion students report significantly more parental encouragement than FLES students (Rhodes et al., 1989).

The optimal age for introducing a foreign language. As the interest in teaching foreign languages in the elementary school expands within a context of ever-shrinking budgets, the issue of optimal age for starting a foreign language becomes more important. It remains to be empirically tested within a FLES model whether there are benefits for the child who begins foreign language study in the early primary grades (K-2) when compared with another who delays instruction until the intermediate primary grades (3-5). Reich (1986) reports that older children are better than younger in coping with a FLES model. Complementary evidence was also reported in the large-scale study conducted a number of years ago in Great Britain (Burstall et al., 1974). However, Donato et al. (1994) found that although there were greater overall proficiency gains for an older cohort of students (grades 3-5) in a FLES program, the younger cohort (K-2) made more uniform gains. Although there has been a good deal of research on this issue with students participating in various types of immersion programs (see Genesee, 1987) clearly, additional research on this important topic is called for within the context of FLES programs.

Realistic proficiency expectations. Although the results from research in immersion programs can serve as an heuristic for organizing FLES research, FLES researchers must continue to build a research base and work within the FLES paradigm. Therefore, one purpose of this paper is to widen the base of research

undertaken with FLES programs in an attempt to provide additional insight into the level of oral language proficiency that can realistically be developed by children from kindergarten through grade five, as well as to examine whether there are differential gains in proficiency for younger (K-2) versus older (3-5) learners.

Language of instruction. The question of which language(s) to teach is a very complicated one, and most individuals conclude that there is no *right* answer (see Met, 1989). The answer to this question will vary from community to community or even school to school depending upon a variety of demographic, economic, social, political, and personal factors.

In this report, we describe the implementation and documentation of a Japanese FLES program in an elementary school in Pittsburgh, PA. Despite the fact that there are a number of exemplary Japanese programs in various parts of the country, the aggregate number of students studying Japanese remains very small. The opportunity to develop and to implement a Japanese FLES program of potential national significance led us to begin to work collaboratively with colleagues at the Falk School, the Laboratory School of the University of Pittsburgh, during the summer of 1992. We believe that the present continuing program documentation has important implications for educators, administrators, and policy makers as school districts begin to plan for the expansion of their elementary curricula to include foreign languages as one of the core subjects of study as well as for language education researchers. We are confident that the various products of this documentation will both be informed by as well as contribute to the continuing work by members of the profession to articulate a set of National Standards for Foreign Language Education. Further, the multifaceted framework for evaluation that we have implemented will positively influence work concerning student and program monitoring and evaluation.

Assessing the language proficiency of younger children. The ability to monitor and evaluate the linguistic gains of children is important to the success of FLES programs. However, little research has been conducted on the assessment of proficiency of children enrolled in FLES classes. A recent CAL report publication (October, 1994) on K--8 foreign language assessments (including speaking, writing, and attitudes) lists over 50 tests thus indicating the growing interest in this area of evaluation. However, relatively little information is reported on the potential validity, reliability, or usefulness of these measures for capturing early language production. Therefore, when considering foreign language education in the elementary school, it is important to work toward documenting as accurately as possible the linguistic gains that are actually brought about by various program models, and by children at various ages in the sequence of instruction. This implies that research on oral assessment needs to be systematically undertaken to determine the tasks and techniques best suited for describing the language proficiency of young children.

General Description of Program and Review of Year 1 Highlights

The Japanese program at Falk can be characterized as a typical FLES program--fifteen-minute classes each day totaling 75 minutes of instruction each week for all children in grades K through 5. The JFL program at Falk differs from other FLES program models by its use of daily instruction rather than full-period classes held on fewer days of the school week. The curriculum reflects a proficiency orientation with attempts at content-enrichment where appropriate.[2] Each lesson or set of lessons designed by the teacher focused on thematic vocabulary presented within a context, a language function associated with the context, and some attention to the grammatical or syntactic structure necessary for carrying out the specified function (Omaggio Hadley, 1993). During the first year of the program (1992-1993), lessons also emphasized listening comprehension or receptive skills more than the productive skills although students were not discouraged from using the language when production arose spontaneously in class as is often observed among young children learning a new language. During the first year, children received significant amounts of Japanese input from their teacher--their only source of input--and were systematically required to demonstrate comprehension through a number of Total Physical Response activities. Production, although not neglected, was not deemed as central to the children's initial contact with Japanese. When speaking was the objective of a lesson, production was limited to new lexical items, formulaic expressions for carrying out functional objectives (e.g., greeting, leave taking, stating one's address or age), or some creative, personalized responses (e.g., "What's your favorite color? ...your favorite food?")

Research on the first year of this program (Donato, Antonek & Tucker, 1994) revealed that the students were indeed making substantial progress in developing a set of building blocks in Japanese which could eventually lead them toward the attainment of more advanced proficiency goals. A sample of 31 students across the various grade levels who were interviewed ranged in language ability from Novice-Low-Low to Intermediate Low on a prochievement interviewed modeled after the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview (see later section on Program Documentation for a fuller description of this technique).

In addition, the results from Language and Culture questionnaires administered to all students revealed that they had developed positive attitudes about people from other cultures, a positive reaction to the study of foreign language, and a desire to continue participating in the Japanese FLES program the following year. Furthermore, questionnaires completed by parents revealed that a majority were pleased with the program, noted the language accomplishments of their children at

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[2] The issue of content-enrichment requires additional investigation. During the start up of an innovative FLES program and in the presence of a dynamically emerging understanding of the role of foreign language in the elementary school curriculum, expectations for systematic integration of subject area content into the foreign language curriculum may be overly optimistic.

home, and hoped that the program would continue the following year. Some parents did express concern, however, about the prospective lack of articulation and continuation of the program from the elementary to the middle school while others, albeit a minority, expressed the fear that time was being taken away from other "important" academic subjects like math and science.

The grade-level teachers in the school were equally positive about the program noting that they observed no indications of linguistic interference from the learning of Japanese on the children's English language arts and reading development. In analyzing the responses of the teachers, we did note, however, that few attempts were made to reinforce the learning of Japanese through the use of integrated, thematic units linking Japanese to other academic subjects. This lack of connection to the broader school curriculum was also revealed in the reflections of the Japanese teacher who expressed some concern over the program's lack of integration into the wider school community and her own personal feeling of marginalization from the overall academic and social life of the school. Overall, however, the picture which emerged based upon reasonably comprehensive research following year 1 was that of a burgeoning FLES program with a bright future. There were tangible indications that the children had developed a base of receptive skills in the language and that they and their parents had developed quite positive attitudes toward the program and the study of Japanese.

Description of the Year 2 Program

Encouraged and informed by the findings from the first year of the JFL program, work began on the second year curriculum. Observations by the teacher and a student researcher during the first year had revealed that students had strong listening comprehension skills, but that their production was limited primarily to word or phrase-level utterances, often formulaic in nature.[3] The second year curriculum for children was therefore designed to build upon themes and functions from the first year with increased opportunities for student extended language production. Thus, the inclusion of role and drama activities, games, and personalized questions represented an attempt at enabling the children to go beyond listening comprehension to more productive and creative language use. Culture also played a significantly greater role in the second year curriculum. The teacher invoked cultural themes more frequently in year 2 as a basis for the introduction of new vocabulary (e.g., learning about a Japanese home when learning words for rooms of a house). Thematic vocabulary introduced in year 1 was maintained in year 2, but amplified and elaborated upon in the second year curriculum. This vocabulary was also used more productively than during the previous year and

[3] This observation is not surprising given the emphasis of the first year curriculum on listening comprehension and the learning of certain fixed expressions necessary for carrying out novice level language functions.

students were expected to demonstrate comprehension and production of new lexical items in classroom speaking activities.

Based on the findings of the first year parent survey, we also decided to initiate a series of interactive parent-child homework assignments. Parents reported that they wanted more information about the JFL curriculum and about the learning activities of their children. Homework packets were devised to familiarize parents with vocabulary and cultural topics introduced in class. Each interactive assignment included a short activity to be carried out by parent and child such as counting, identifying colors, simple role plays, or vocabulary practice, to name a few. Parents were also provided with phonetic keys to assist them in pronouncing the Japanese words used in the assignment. The initial reaction to the interactive homework assignments was that they were too lengthy to complete, and that often the children would become frustrated with material they had not yet entirely mastered.

To remedy this situation, the assignments were shortened after which parental response improved dramatically. The decision to shorten the interactive homework came following a survey that the teacher conducted at mid-year. Year-end survey data revealed that 58% of the parents responded that they did half or more of the interactive homework; with 28% of the parents responding that they enjoyed doing the interactive homework with their children. Although 36% responded that they found the interactive homework to be frustrating, nevertheless in response to a question as to whether interactive homework should continue, 67% responded "yes," while only 21% responded "no," and 12% did not respond or had responses that could not be coded.

In summary the year 2 program incorporated a number of curricular changes, a set of strategies designed to enhance parental involvement. The teacher was also supplied with sufficient personal office space which indicated a greater prominence for the JFL program and its teacher within the school.

Program Documentation and Evaluation.

We reviewed the various measures that we had used during year one to collect information from the pupils, their parents, the Japanese teacher, and other teachers in the school (see Donato, Antonek & Tucker, 1994). Based upon this review and our experiences during the first year, we made several adaptations to the instruments, and we introduced one additional measure. The instruments and data collection procedures are described briefly.

Japanese Vocabulary. In addition, all pupils completed a 20-item Japanese-language adaptation of the *Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test* (Dunn, 1959) which we

refer to as the Japanese Picture Vocabulary Test (JPVT)[4]. Pupils received a 22-page booklet consisting of cover sheet, practice trial, and 20 test items. For the practice trial and the 20 test items, four pictures appeared on each sheet. The test administrator, after presenting the directions to the children in English, identified the number of the item and then twice read aloud the "target" item. The children indicated their choice, from among the four alternatives, by placing a mark somewhere over the named picture. The score is the number correct out of 20.

Oral Interviews. From the 194 participating students, 35 pupils were randomly selected from the eight classrooms (two boys and two girls from each class plus two "new" children from each of the two K/1 classrooms) to participate in individual oral interviews. These selected children will be referred to as "target" or "sample" children in contrast to the remaining students who will be referred to as the "population" children. In order to further assure ourselves that the children from the sample were, in fact, representative of those in the population, we also compared their scores on the California Achievement Test which is administered to pupils by the school. We had access to data for children from grades three, four, and five, and we compared the performances of the two groups on the vocabulary subscale, the language subscale, and the total test. There were no significant differences between the two groups on any of these measures.

We have previously described the oral interviews (see Donato, Antonek & Tucker, 1994) as Prochievement Interviews (Pro-I). Each of the target students was interviewed by a native speaker of Japanese following a standard pretested protocol in which a variety of tasks were used to elicit samples of Japanese from the student (e.g., general greetings, describing or answering questions about a picture of a familiar household scene, a set of grammaticality judgments in which the child had to choose which of two alternatives sounded "better" [What is it? *nan desu or nan deska*], several forced-choice questions, and a set of elicited repetition items presented in Japanese [apple, red apple, red apple on the table, red apple on the brown table, the red apple is on the brown table in the living room]. The interview concluded with a wrap-up session in which the child was asked to name as many of the objects from the picture as possible, and to count to from one to ten. Interview sessions which were video-recorded lasted from 12 to 15 minutes. Another native-speaker observer assessed the child's performance using a "Student Observation Form" (SOF), adapted from the Student Oral Language Observation Matrix, which called for making ratings along a five-point scale on a set of five scales--Comprehension, Fluency, Vocabulary, Pronunciation, and Grammar. At the conclusion of the Pro-I, the observer also assigned a "global" rating (e.g., novice-low, intermediate-mid, etc.) to each of the children guided by the ACTFL oral proficiency rating scale.

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[4]The vocabulary items tested were: bus, hand, bed, cow, knee, airplane, earring, square, waking up, arrow, book, hippo, parachute, vegetable, shoulder, many, camera, person, eyebrow, island.

Learner Questionnaires. All pupils completed an age-appropriate "Language and Culture Questionnaire" (adapted from the work by Gardner & Smythe, 1981) in which they were asked to provide information about topics such as their attitudes toward school in general and the study of Japanese in particular, their perceptions of their parents' encouragement to study Japanese, and the importance of studying Japanese. The questionnaires for the K--2 pupils contained 10 questions, each of which was responded to along a four-point picture rating scale. The questionnaires for the grade 3--5 pupils contained 17 questions using a four-point verbal scale for responding. Those administered to the grade 5 pupils had an additional section containing five forced-choice and two open-ended questions specifically focusing on their experiences in Japanese class.

Teacher's Assessment of Language Development. In addition, the Japanese teacher was asked to rate the language ability of *all* of the children individually using the same five scales from the "Student Observation Form."

Parent Questionnaires. Parents were asked to complete a 25-item questionnaire designed to collect basic information about topics such as previous language study, their encouragement of their child's study, their awareness of their child's progress, their support for the program through their completion of a series of interactive homework assignments, and their satisfaction with the program. Questionnaires were sent home to parents to be completed at their leisure. Sixty-seven families representing 88 of the 194 participating children returned completed questionnaires.

The Japanese Teacher. A protocol was developed for the Japanese teacher to complete. She was asked to reflect on her experiences during the second year of the program in relationship to those of the first with respect to her teaching, her students, the parents, her relationship with other teachers in the school, and the relationship of the Japanese program to the school.

Other Teachers. A 10-item questionnaire was developed for the other primary teachers in the school to collect information about their own language study, their contact with the pupils and the program, their feelings about the program and their pupils' reactions to it, ways in which they integrated material from the program into their own content classes, and their recommendations, if any, for continuation of the program in future years. The questionnaire was distributed to the teachers to be completed at their leisure. Questionnaires were returned from all nine of the primary teachers.

Results

In the sections to follow, we will first present information from the testing of the pupils in Year 2 following which we will present, when appropriate, selected comparisons with data collected at the end of year 1. We will also relate responses

from certain items on the attitude questionnaire to the pupils' language performance. Second, we will present information from the parent questionnaires from year two after which we will attempt to relate some indices of parental encouragement and interest to student language performance. Third, we will describe the responses of the school's other teachers to their questionnaire, and fourth we will present the results from the Interview Protocol with the classroom teacher.

Japanese Picture Vocabulary Test. An item analysis revealed that 17 of the 20 items discriminated positively between those students who performed best on the test and those who performed most poorly. Students, in general, performed well on the JPVT. The target children ($X= 14.71$, $SD= 1.43$) performed significantly better ($t= 3.31$, $p < .01$) than the population ($X= 13.68$, $SD= 2.37$) although the absolute difference was less than one full item. Interestingly the females ($X= 14.26$, $SD= 1.75$) performed significantly better ($t= 2.24$, $p< .05$) than the males ($X= 13.53$, $SD= 2.59$) although once again the absolute difference was small. There was no difference in the performance of the younger versus the older students.

Oral Interviews. Each of the target children was assigned a composite Pro-I rating using the ACTFL guidelines. The profile which emerged for the 35 children was a very positive one which indicated substantial growth when the pattern of ratings from this year was compared with that from the year 1 testing ($t= 2.21$, $p< .05$). In year 2, two of the children received ratings in the Intermediate range while none had been that favorably rated in the first year. In contrast, 17 of the children had been rated in the Novice-Low (or lower) range in year 1 while only 7 were placed in the Novice-Low range in Year 2 (see Table 1).

Insert Table 1 about here

The target students were also rated by the interviewers on each of five performance variables using the Student Observation Form (SOF). With this evaluation, a score of 5 represents the highest possible evaluation, and 1 the lowest. Although the target students were rated lower on four of the five scales at the end of year 2 compared with year 1, none of those differences were significant. In contrast, the interviewers rated the children significantly higher ($t= 2.15$, $p< .05$) on Grammar in year 2 ($X= 2.24$, $SD= .76$) than they had at the end of year 1 ($X= 1.71$, $SD= 1.11$). Comparative ratings by the observers are presented in Table 2. It is also interesting to note that the rank ordering of the children on the performance variables by the interviewers was essentially preserved across the two years with the children being evaluated most favorably on the "pronunciation" scale and least favorably on the "grammar" scale.

Insert Table 2 about here

The year 2 ratings assigned by the interviewers to the target children in grades K--2 were also compared with those assigned to children in grades 3--5 for each of the five performance variables. The older children (X fluency= 2.77, SD= .86; X grammar= 2.53, SD= .77) were rated significantly more fluent ($t= 3.08$, $p< .01$) and as having a better control of grammar ($t= 2.05$, $p< .05$) than the younger children (X fluency= 1.95, SD= .71; X grammar= 2.03, SD= .70). The two groups did not differ significantly on the other three scales.

In addition, all of the children were rated on the SOF by their classroom teacher. The children were rated significantly more favorably at the end of year 2 than they had been at the end of year 1 on all five of the performance variables (see Table 3). For the year 2 data, the teacher rated the older grade 3--5 children significantly more favorably on four of the variables than the younger K--2 children (X comprehension= 3.46, SD= .77 vs. X= 3.03, SD= .71; $t= 4.05$, $p< .01$; X fluency= 3.12, SD= .78 vs. X= 2.82, SD= .73; $t= 2.75$, $p< .01$; X vocabulary= 3.21, SD= .82 vs. X= 2.84, SD= .76; $t= 3.30$, $p< .01$; X grammar= 2.94, SD= .74 vs. X= 2.11, SD= .59; $t= 8.61$, $p< .01$). It is interesting to note that they did not differ in terms of pronunciation. Furthermore, a significant positive correlation ($r= .72$, $p< .01$) between the ratings assigned by the interviewers, and those assigned by the teacher for the target children indicated that the children were evaluated consistently.

Insert Table 3 about here

Our findings appear to be generally consistent with other available data. Within the existing FLES literature, Rhodes et al. (1989) found that the rank order for strongest to weakest performance by FLES students on an examination of oral proficiency was comprehension, fluency, vocabulary, and then grammar.[5] Donato et al. (1994) reported the following rank order on the Student Observation Form: pronunciation, vocabulary, comprehension, fluency, and grammar. In Clyne's research (1986), the rank order of mean scores for test measures over the first two years of his study of FLES students was: (1) sound discrimination, (2) oral production, (3) listening comprehension, (4) oral comprehension, (5) cloze completion, and (6) grammar. Clyne also found that in the first two years, FLES students produced primarily formulaic utterances. Rhodes et al. also found that students in intensive FLES programs performed significantly better than those in regular FLES programs. While the intensive FLES model only provided for 30 additional instructional minutes a week, students received instruction daily rather than twice a week.

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[5]While it is not the purpose of this article to compare and contrast FLES and immersion programs, it should be noted that Rhodes et al. found the same rank order results for immersion programs.

Descriptive Analysis of Interviews.[6] In an attempt to shed additional light on the student's Japanese language development, an independent study of six students selected from the 35 students participating in the prochievement interviews was conducted by Traphagan (1994). Two students whose oral productions had been evaluated at the novice-low, novice-mid, and novice-high proficiency levels were selected for closer analysis to determine general characteristics of the their language production and the relationship between student proficiency level and specific Pro-I tasks. In the section to follow, we briefly summarize the results of this analysis.

- *Description of Pro-I*

The Pro-I was divided into seven sections: 1) warm-up, 2) grammaticality judgment task, 3) sentence selection, 4) picture description and focused questions about the picture, 5) open-ended, personalized questions, 6) elicited repetition, and 7) wrap-up. The six videotaped interviews were transcribed for analysis and were coded for intonation, silences and gaps, overlapping and non-overlapping speech, inaudible utterances, and nonverbal behavior. Discourse data from various tasks enriched and informed our description of student language performance, and will be used to guide future testing decisions regarding the usefulness of certain test items and test types. The analysis did not examine performance on the warm-up or wrap-up sections of the interview.

- *General characteristics of interviews.*

Not all tasks discriminated effectively among students at high-, mid-, and low-levels of oral proficiency. We will return to this point in the next section. Two interesting observations were made, however, regarding positive indicators of student performance. First, it was observed that children who were evaluated as novice-high and novice-mid *voluntarily used Japanese* during the interviewer's English explanation and examples of the focused question task. For example, when explaining to a child in English how questions would be presented, it was found that two high-level students and one mid-level student voluntarily offered a Japanese answer to the interviewer's English question (Interviewer: Is it a car? Child: "Hai, kuruma desu."). The two low-level students never responded in Japanese to this portion of the task.

Secondly, it was observed that the *quantity of production* often matched the ratings given to children assessed at the high- and mid- range of our scale. In particular, it appeared that children were able to demonstrate their abilities to the fullest during

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[6] According to Met (personal communication, November 22, 1994), analyses of FLES student interview data are critical given the small amount of language often yielded in the interview setting and the rapid linguistic growth and development that children experience when studying a foreign language at an early age. Describing the linguistic performance of children in FLES programs is, therefore, important to program evaluation and design and can ultimately inform curriculum, policy and the formulation of standards for this level of instruction.

the picture description task. In the case of one child, an extended utterance of three sentences was elicited during his attempt to describe the actions depicted in the picture. On the other hand, utterances, although freely produced, were not always accurate especially in terms of lexical choices. For example, it was observed that some children would confuse family names (e.g., mother for father) when describing the picture. This finding implies that the presence of quantity (rather than formal accuracy alone of Japanese utterances) can be a positive indicator of the early language learner's ability, and that this was perceived by our interviewers as one way of discriminating and determining proficiency levels.

The role of quantity was also revealed during the open-ended, personalized questions of the Pro-I. In this section, children were asked to state their preferences for food, school subjects, weather, and leisure time activities. In spite of their final global ratings on the Pro-I, children from the subset of the sample rated as novice-high and novice-low appeared to become more expressive and interested in the interviewer's task. For example, when asked to state a preference for a certain food, one child responded with "Kirai. Dai kirai." (I dislike it. I hate it) indicating a strong personal response to the question as well as an ability to state his dislike in two different utterance types. Further, the two students who were rated as novice-low also appeared to respond favorably and positively to the open-ended questions. This positive performance is surprising given that, on the focused question section of the Pro-I, these students were unable to respond to similar questions when asked about a picture they were viewing. For example, one novice-low student was observed to pick up a picture of an orange and state spontaneously "suki desu." ("I like it."). Traphagan (1994, p.12) notes that she "had the impression that students wanted to tell and clarify what food they liked or disliked. If this is the case, this type of task (i.e., open-ended, personal questions) may be extremely important for motivating children to perform to their fullest."

- *Analysis of task by proficiency level*

Among the 5 tasks analyzed, the *sentence selection task* and the *focused question task* proved to be particularly useful for discriminating the children's oral proficiency. In the sentence selection portion of the test, children were asked to look at a picture and then to choose and repeat the correct sentence best describing that picture from two sentences provided by the interviewer (e.g., "It is a car. It isn't a car."). All prompts dealt with positive and negative sentences containing nouns, verbs, and adjectives. There were 6 prompts in all with two sentences from each grammatical category. The ratio of correct responses to the total number of responses correlated highly with the children's final global rating. The four students rated as novice-high and novice-mid supplied correct choices 68% of the time whereas the two students at the lower end of the scale responded correctly only 33% of the time.

The quality of their responses also differed in important ways. First, students rated as novice-low were incapable of choosing or returning the complete sentence as

stated by the interviewer. For example, when asked "Gakkoo desu." or "Gakkoo ja nai desu." ("It is a school." "It isn't a school."), a novice-low student simply responded "Gakkoo." This pattern of response was repeated for 5 of the 6 sentence pairs presented. Second, for choices requiring the selection of a negative sentence, only the two novice-high students were able to perform accurately. The two novice-low students were only able to supply the correct negative sentence on one occasion. In summary, the sentence selection task seemed to be effective for discriminating children's proficiency level in term of their ability to select and return complete sentences and to choose responses in the negative.

Students performance on the focused-question task also related positively to their global rating. On this section of the Pro-I, children were given a picture about which they were asked several questions; later they were asked to describe the picture. Three categories of questions were asked: Yes/No questions, alternative questions joined by "or" ("Is this a cat or a dog?" and WH-questions. The responses to Yes/No questions discriminated novice-high and novice-mid-level attainment on the Pro-I from novice-low level performance. Moreover, the two children achieving a novice-high rating in the sample responded to Yes/No questions beyond the word-level and used extended utterances such as "Iie, kuruma ja nai" ("No, it's not a car.") rather than a one-word "yes" or "no." The novice-low level students were often unable to understand the question or provided an inappropriate response or incorrect information (Interviewer: "Is this a car?" Child: "No, it is red."). Surprisingly, alternative questions did not prove to be useful discriminators which may have been due to the children's lack of experience with this form of questioning. WH-questions provided a clear demarcation between novice-high and novice-mid and -low level performance. In the majority of cases, the two novice-high level students could comprehend and answer these questions correctly. They showed greater facility in answering WH-questions involving the copula as opposed to other verbs (e.g., "What is it?" vs. "What is she watching?"). The four children assessed at a novice-mid and novice-low level rating often responded to WH-questions as if they were Yes/No questions requiring the interviewer to change the questioning procedure to a forced-choice alternative question or Yes/No question. Further, it appeared that the difficulty in processing the WH-questions was situated in the WH-question word itself. For example, when a WH-question was changed to a Yes/No question, children could often choose the correct reply. The picture to emerge on this task is, therefore, that the two children rated as novice-high correctly answered WH-questions and Yes/No questions, children at the novice-mid range responded well only to Yes/No questions, and children who were assigned a novice-low score had difficulty on all three question types. It appears, therefore, that merely asking questions in an interview may not yield enough or sufficiently rich information on the developing language competence of young children. Varying question types and examining performance over a range of answering behavior will be required to assess accurately the oral proficiency of the early language learner.

Although the results from the other sections of the test did not allow such clear discrimination, they did provide valuable information about the young learners'

abilities. In the elicited repetition task, it was noted that some children would change the arrangement of the words to conform to English syntax (e.g., "Mimasu terebi." instead of "Terebi o mimasu."). Further it was found that the most common words to be dropped from the child's repetition were the case-marking particles. As sentences to be repeated became progressively longer, case-marking particles were the first morphemes to be omitted by the child. In the case of the novice-mid and novice-low level students, relatively few case-marking particles were used compared to the frequent inclusion of these forms by the two novice-high children.

On the grammaticality judgment task, all students performed at the same level (50% correct choices). This result may be an artifact of the item type which did not include a control for guessing or random selection. On the other hand, it was found that the two novice-high children and one novice-mid child answered by supplying the full Japanese sentence rather than merely replying with "first" or "second." No such use of full sentences was observed in the performance of the other three children. As previously discussed, the voluntary use of extended Japanese over a task-acceptable one-word utterance characterized the children who performed at the higher end of the scale.

In conclusion, the most robust data were provided on the sentence selection and the focused question tasks. In the sentence selection task, children who could select correct negative sentences were those who scored higher on the Pro-I. In the focused question task, the Yes/No questions and the WH-questions discriminated better overall among the sample than forced-choice alternative questions. The nature of the task appears to be a critical variable if we wish to allow children to demonstrate their abilities to the fullest. In spite of their limited linguistic resources, children were highly motivated to express themselves in personally meaningful and authentic ways when confronted with open-ended tasks. A further interesting finding is that proficiency attainment was not isolated to the older cohort of pupils (i.e., grades 3-5). Of the four students analyzed from the top end of the rating scale one was from the fourth and one from the second grade in the novice high category while one was from the fourth and one from the first grade in the novice-mid range. It appears, therefore, that successful linguistic performance of children in a traditional FLES program is not restricted to older learners but that it can also be attained by those children who truly have an early start.

Learner Questionnaires. As a first step in the analysis of the questionnaire data, the responses by the students from grades three, four, and five on the 16 matching items were subjected to factor analysis using principle components extraction with varimax rotation. The major purpose in undertaking this analysis was to assure ourselves that we had retained, after shortening the original questionnaire, the conceptual categories that had been developed by Gardner and Smythe. The analysis confirmed this expectation.

For the results which follow, we have examined the responses by students across all of the grade levels to common items. In general, the students responded extremely favorably to the study of Japanese and to the possibility of continuing their study. Seventy-four percent of all students reported that they enjoy learning Japanese while 69% reported that learning Japanese is fun. In addition, 58% of the youngest students (K--2) reported that they wanted to have Japanese in the 1994--1995 school year [which they now do] while 47% of the fifth graders wanted to continue studying Japanese [which unfortunately they have not been able to do]. These findings were consistent with those by Rhodes et al. who found that FLES students had developed positive attitudes on the following factors: attitudes toward target-language speakers, interest in foreign language, parental encouragement, and attitude toward learning the target language.

Fifty-eight percent of all of our students reported that their parents try to help them with Japanese while 41% reported that their parents encourage them to practice Japanese as much as possible. We then examined the relationship among a variety of attitudinal indices and other measures. We found, for example, that there was no significant correlation between parent and student attitudes. While the majority of students and parents (see below) are happy with the program, those parents who express dissatisfaction with the program do not necessarily have dissatisfied children.

Parent Questionnaires. Approximately 40% of the families returned completed questionnaires which is in itself indicative of substantial interest in the program. A large majority of the parents speak English at home, have themselves *not* studied Japanese or visited Japan, and did not participate in FLES programs when they were in elementary school. Again, this year, the responses by the parents indicated a general overall satisfaction with the program. Ninety-eight per cent of the parents reported that they were happy that their child had the opportunity to take a foreign language in the elementary school and 81% were happy that the language being taught was Japanese. When asked what they hoped their child would gain from the program, 63% ranked "enjoyment of learning a language" as their number one objective. Similarly, an equal number ranked "cultural knowledge" as the second most important outcome. Clearly, parents have thought about the program, their children's participation, and what exactly it is feasible to accomplish during a relatively limited amount of time (i.e., 15 minutes per day).

A large majority (76%) of the parents endorsed continuing the practice begun this year of assigning regular interactive homework. Parents volunteered comments on the interactive homework confirming that the activity provided them with information about the JFL curriculum:

> "It seems that what we do at home has a big influence on learning. Ideally we would learn Japanese along with [our child] but that's not going to happen. Therefore the homework sheets are the vital link that can let us know what is happening

> and let us help, even if only a little.... I found the cultural information to be fascinating, for example, how Japanese use their fingers to count and which finger they use to point to themselves."

Another parent noted, "My child does seem to be showing much mastery as demonstrated by the take home work sheets."

Parents were quite consistent in their feelings about the desirability of continuing the program. Seventy-three percent reported that they wanted the program to continue in the primary school. This feeling was evident in a number of the open-ended responses. "Children have begun Japanese--not to continue would be foolish." "I think it is an innovative and timely move to teach Japanese and very good for kids growing up in this era." "I think language instruction serves to increase cultural awareness and broadens kids' horizons and decreases cultural prejudice." Sixty-three percent reported that they would encourage their children to take Japanese if it were offered in the middle school (grade 6--8). Another 25% responded to that question by noting "it depends' with endorsement hinging on such issues as letting their children decide for themselves, etc. Among the parents who did not endorse continuation of the program, a number felt that it would make more sense, for a variety of economic and social reasons, for their children to study Spanish.

In a question regarding general satisfaction with the JFL program, 64% were clearly happy with the program and less than 10% were unhappy with the program. It should be noted that a number of parents (28%) expressed ambivalence toward the program. Parents indicated that this ambivalence stemmed from not knowing enough about the program, thinking that it is unrealistic to see proficiency gains in a non-cognate language, or receiving minimal feedback regarding the program. Clearly, Falk parents want to be better informed about the program and desire a channel of communication beyond the interactive homework sheets. This is a finding that should be easy to act upon.

When the JFL program was established, we were concerned that parents would resent the 15 minutes taken away from homeroom and other subjects and allocated to Japanese or that JFL instruction would interfere with other subjects. However, in Year 2, 94% of the parents felt that Japanese did not interfere with other subjects. Open ended responses were also quite favorable: "I feel quite the opposite. We have had several opportunities to incorporate Japanese into other topics (mostly non-academic)." Another parent concluded, "I see no evidence that his studying Japanese is anything but positive."

In summary, the parents indicated general satisfaction with the program, a strong belief that the study of Japanese does not interfere with the study of other subjects and a hope that the program will continue.

Since other researchers have found that parental encouragement is a key variable in foreign language learning in the elementary school (Antonek, Donato & Tucker, 1994; Rhodes et al., 1989), we examined the relationship among certain indices of parental attitudes and various student proficiency measures. Although there was a low correlation between the Japanese Picture Vocabulary Test and parental attitudes ($r = -.21$, $p = .05$) it was *not* significant. Students who obtained the highest scores on the JPVT did not necessarily have parents who expressed satisfaction with the program; students who performed poorly, did not necessarily have parents who were dissatisfied with the program. Furthermore, there was no significant correlation between the SOF scores and parental attitudes. The findings from the parental attitude survey and the selected comparisons indicate that the minority of ambivalent and dissatisfied parents are not undermining the program by transmitting negative and ambivalent attitudes to their children. The implication of this finding is that schools play a significant role in contributing to the attitudes of children.

Teacher Questionnaires. Questionnaires were completed and returned by all nine regular primary teachers. The majority (eight) reported that they had never previously studied Japanese although one reported that she had studied Japanese theater. Three of the teachers indicated that they regularly participated in the Japanese classes while three reported that they did so only occasionally, and three that they never did so. Five of the teachers stated that they had introduced Japanese topics in their classes while four noted that they had not. Of those who reported having done so, one mentioned that she had introduced readings based on Japan while the others had participated in what turned out to be a very well received social studies unit taught in the spring focusing on Japan.

A majority of the teachers (eight of the nine) indicated that their students had not experienced any difficulties in other subjects attributable to their study of Japanese. Likewise a majority (seven of the nine) stated that their students seemed to like the Japanese classes. One of the continuing teachers noted that the children seemed to participate more actively in the program in the second year than they had during the first, while one other continuing teacher reported that the class cut into the homeroom period which caused some disruption.

In response to the question concerning whether the program should continue, four said "yes" while four others indicated that it would be a good idea to wait until the results of this assessment were available. Thus, in summary, the responses by the teachers were generally positive. There seemed to have been more of an attempt by some teachers to integrate material from Japan and from the Japanese classes into their "regular" classes during the second year than there had been in the first, and there seemed to be a widespread perception that the children genuinely enjoyed their Japanese classes.

Teacher Protocol. At the end of the year, the JFL teacher was asked to reflect on her teaching, student progress to date, differences between year 1 and year 2, and

the advice she would give to an incoming FLES teacher. Three themes emerged in the narrative comments of the teacher: 1) her professional growth and development as a novice teacher, 2) the importance of external influences that impact on student learning, and 3) the JFL program and its relationship to Falk School.

• *Professional Growth and Development*

The teacher characterized her second year experience as "easier, more comfortable, and more familiar." She claims to know the students, school, and teachers better. She found that instruction was easier because of the material she developed in year 1, and that having her own office space was a "great change." She also revealed that she was learning to attend to *individual differences* among students concerning their attitudes and how they interact with others in class. The theme of "individual difference" is reiterated in her comments about the *students* when she asserted that she now can see "differences between students who were learning quickly and those who were withdrawing from learning Japanese."

She reported feeling more confident in her teaching and in her ability to assess student classroom behavior. She exhibited this confidence and sense of satisfaction with her work in her observation that students "were able to put more than one word together to construct simple sentences. It seemed that they got the feel of Japanese." She was also able to construct activities that promoted language production (role plays) and student interaction and felt that these activities were among the most enjoyable in the class. She also noted that "students seemed to retain or retrieve a lot of Japanese from the previous year with little review."

Also discussed several times in the reflection was the teacher's difficulty with managing certain groups of children and the impossibility of conducting certain classroom activities because of class size. Although the teacher observed an improvement in her own management skills, she still maintained that the presence of another teacher, especially the homeroom teacher, would have greatly facilitated classroom management She noted that "It is very important that the other teacher help you since you have so many children in class." In light of the fact that the teacher needed to conduct her classes in the classroom of other teachers and that at times the Japanese class was embedded within the middle of another class, it is not surprising that the JFL teacher would look to the classroom teacher for assistance and support.

• *External Influences on Student Achievement*

One interesting line of reflection is the teacher's growing awareness that student learning and classroom performance may not be totally under her control. She stated that she has come to realize that student misbehavior in class is not always the result of something she has done ("I realized that it was not totally my fault that the children misbehaved in my class."). Similar feelings about her influence on student achievement were expressed. She noted that one child seemed to lose

interest in Japanese when she learned that the parents' [Japanese] class had been canceled. She feels that parents also exerted an influence by their involvement with their children's learning, and she seemed a bit discouraged by parents who refused to help their children on the interactive homework assignment. She suggested that open classes for parents may provide a way to involve them more in the language education of their children.

Other teachers also played a role, according to the teacher, in influencing student interest and achievement. She noted that students were more involved and interested in her lessons when they were participating in the social studies unit on Japan. The teacher also observed that students were interested when their own homeroom teachers participated in the Japanese lesson.

• *JFL and its Relationship to the School*

The feeling of marginalization reported at the end of the first year seemed to persist in her relationship to other teachers and in her understanding of the place of Japanese within the total K-5 curriculum. She claimed that she knew homeroom teachers better, but that their relationship to her did not change much from last year. She admits that this may be due partially to scheduling difficulties and the inability of finding an appropriate time to meet to discuss how their classes could be linked to Japanese lessons. She stated that the JFL program "is a little bit isolated from the main program" and wonders how seriously it is taken by the school, parents, and other teachers. She provided evidence of this lack of seriousness toward Japanese in her observation that more resources for the program are needed if the program is to continue.

When she was asked to give advice to a new FLES teacher at the school, the theme of external factors influencing teaching and learning permeated her advice:

- classroom management--work with the homeroom teacher
- work closely with parents
- work closely with homeroom teachers. Get as much help as possible.
- be aware that kids are affected by everything. Don't worry if sometimes you feel you have little control
- make sure you have fun

In spite of occasional musings about classroom control and the place of JFL in the school, we see clear evidence of the teacher's increased satisfaction with her own teaching ability, student achievement, and program reputation. This finding is clearly revealed in the following comments:

> "I have grown as a FLES teacher and have gained a lot of confidence and skills...The students seemed more comfortable with Japanese, learning Japanese, and me.... They liked role plays...and still seemed to enjoy TPR with new vocabulary and games, however, using the language to interact with

others seemed to really interest them very much.... Parents who did the homework activity assignment seemed very enthusiastic about the JFL program. I received very encouraging comments from them."

Implications for Future Work

In our work to date, we have been struck by a number of observations which we believe to be of general relevance for those concerned with the successful implementation of FLES programs.

How Policy Decisions are Made. The Falk School has an Executive Committee composed of university faculty, teachers, and parents. This group has responsibility for reviewing and recommending changes in school policy. This group, for example, is now considering whether to regularize the Japanese FLES program and indeed whether to introduce a regular foreign language program in Japanese for students at the intermediate school level, grades 6, 7, and 8. We have been struck by the seriousness with which this Committee goes about its work, and by their eagerness to receive input such as the diverse sources of data that we have been collecting. We mention this because it exemplifies a responsibility that researchers or program evaluators have to ensure that their reports are directed differentially to the varied audiences who need access to them. That is, we feel as much responsibility to communicate regularly with the members of this Committee as we do to prepare articles for publication in scholarly journals.

The "fit" of the FLES Program within the Total School. Programs such as this one often do not seem to "fit" squarely within the mainstream of other units and activities of the school. This marginalization may be reflected in many ways: by a lack of private space for the often-itinerant teacher, by the failure to include the teacher in the school's various working groups, by the lack of time allotted for joint planning, by the failure to assign "grades" to the children in so-called special subjects or otherwise fail to communicate systematically with the parents about their children's progress in these classes. Certainly, the long-term successful implementation of a program such as this will depend upon its increasing centrality to the life of the school--and other research has indicated the important gate-keeping role that the principal often plays in this matter (Baranick & Markham, 1986).

Curriculum/Materials Development. There is a pressing need for FLES materials for all languages, but especially for the non-cognate less commonly taught languages. Willetts (1989) summarizing the information available from the 655 item database that was developed as part of the work of the Center for Language Education and Research (CLEAR) noted that resources are needed in *all* uncommonly taught languages and in some of the commonly taught languages. In addition, an examination of the materials identified by Grala (1987) as part of another CLEAR activity revealed no Japanese materials for the elementary level. Finally, an ERIC search uncovered annotated bibliographies for the following languages: a 118-item annotated bibliography composed of materials for teaching

Spanish language arts at the elementary and secondary levels; a 25-item annotated bibliography composed of materials for teaching German in the content areas at the elementary and secondary levels; a 68-item annotated bibliography composed of materials for teaching German language arts at the elementary and secondary levels; a 129-item annotated bibliography composed of materials for teaching French language arts at the elementary and secondary levels; but *no* bibliographic entries for Japanese. Clearly, there is a general need for FLES materials in all languages, but the need appears to be especially acute for less commonly taught non-cognate languages such as Japanese.

Importance of Articulation. The importance attached to issues of articulation has taken on new urgency for us with this program. The Japanese program at Falk was approved as a three-year pilot program for all children in the elementary grades (kindergarten through grade five). Thus, students making the transition from Grade 5 to Grade 6 have found themselves unable to continue to study Japanese, and indeed required to participate in a one-semester FLEX experience in French and another in Spanish in the sixth grade. On the basis of this experience, they then choose whether to study French or Spanish at grades 7 and 8. This policy is problematic for two reasons. On the one hand, the students apparently have developed a set of very positive attitudes toward the study of foreign language in general and Japanese in particular; and they have acquired a set of foundation or building blocks upon which later proficiency in Japanese can be based. We worry on the one hand that the skills developed to date will suffer from attrition and erode, and on the other hand that the school may be sending a negative message by indicating that the study of Japanese is okay for elementary school children, but when it comes time for the more serious academic work of higher grades, then Japanese is no longer appropriate and the students must instead choose a "European" language. Thus, the concept of articulation is important from a policy perspective as well as from the perspective of providing as seamless a transition as possible from one level of study to the next.

Fragility of Extant Assessment Instruments. A systematic review by staff from the Iowa State University National Foreign Language Resource Center has revealed a paucity of instruments for assessing foreign language proficiency for K--6 students. There simply do not exist a sufficient range of reliable, valid, and user-friendly instruments for assessing the development of foreign language skills for young students. This lack is particularly strongly felt among the so-called less commonly taught languages. Thus, we feel it particularly important when conducting research such as that described in this report to ensure that we document the utility, appropriateness, and psychometric characteristics of our assessment instruments since they may well come to serve as prototypes for future testing following the implementation of foreign languages as part of the core curriculum with Goals 2000.

Assessing the oral ability of children is also problematic given the limited language that they control at initial stages of language learning. In addition, not all tasks are created equal. We argue, however, that when age-appropriate methods are used to

interview children which feature tasks that have been selected for their usefulness in capturing the oral abilities of the early language learner, we can indeed begin to understand how children grow and develop in a new language.

Conclusions

This report has presented the results of the documentation, from multiple perspectives, of a Japanese FLES program at the conclusion of its second year of operation. We believe that the children have demonstrated notable progress in developing a set of building blocks in Japanese--particularly in their control of receptive skills. With respect to productive skills, we are encouraged by the students' ever increasing linguistic ability. Children appear to be following the rules of Japanese syntax. Some initiate their own utterances in Japanese while others whom we observed are well beyond word-level utterances and, in some cases, are developing the ability to engage in unplanned, extended discourse often reflecting their personal feelings and reactions. Furthermore, they and their parents appreciate the program, enjoy the study of a foreign language in general and Japanese in particular, and wish to have the opportunity to continue their study of Japanese. In addition, it must be noted that the positive gains we have documented are not limited to those children in the upper grades of the elementary school. More specifically, we have evidence that all children, whether younger (K--2) or older (3--5) can benefit from their participation in a FLES program. These are all positive indicators which augur well for the continued success of the program.

At the same time, there are indications that more could be done to incorporate this program more fully in to the "life" of the school; to more effectively integrate instruction in Japanese with instruction in the other content areas; and to assure that the children have an opportunity for uninterrupted study of Japanese throughout there scholastic career.

In some small way we hope that the present report, and our continuing research with these children, their parents, and their teachers, will help to raise the awareness of parents, educators, and policy makers about the many ways in which carefully designed and well implemented FLES programs can contribute to the development of second language proficiency and cross cultural awareness and understanding on the part of the large proportion of American youngsters who will never have the opportunity to participate in more intensive immersion programs or developmental bilingual education programs. From our perspective the time has long passed for spending our time describing the shortcomings of FLES programs and enumerating the things that their graduates *cannot* do; rather the time has come to describe as clearly as possible those things which the students *can* do and the many ways in which their incipient skills will serve them in the years ahead.

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Table 1

Distribution of Prochievement Interview Ratings

	Total		K		1		2		3		4		5
	Y2	Y1	Y2	Y1	Y2	Y1	Y2	Y1	Y2	Y1	Y2	Y1	Y2
IL	1										1		
IL/NH	1						1						
NH	3	2								1	1		2
NMH	1	2						1				2	
NM	11	6	1		2	2	2		1	2	4	1	1
NML	12	4	2		5	1		1	3		2	1	
NL	7	15	1	4	5	3		3		3		1	1
NLL		2		1				1					
	n= 36	n= 31											

Key: IL= Intermediate low
NH= Novice high
NM= Novice mid
NL= Novice low

Table 2

Mean Student Observation Form Scores by Observer for Year 1 and Year 2

Scale	Year 1		Year 2		
	X	SD	X	SD	t-value
Pronunciation	3.35	1.00	3.11	.51	1.27
Vocabulary	2.63	1.08	2.46	.83	.73
Comprehension	2.55	1.02	2.50	.78	.82
Fluency	2.45	1.07	2.26	.88	.43
Grammar	1.71	.58	2.24	.76	2.15*

* $p < .05$

Table 3

Mean Student Observation Form Scores by Teacher for Year 1 and Year 2

Scale	Year 1		Year 2		
	X	SD	X	SD	t-value
Pronunciation	2.59	.77	3.25	.46	12.14**
Vocabulary	2.02	1.03	3.11	.77	17.26**
Comprehension	2.15	1.00	3.35	.72	18.66**
Fluency	1.60	.79	3.04	.71	26.73**
Grammar	1.34	.58	2.69	.71	25.48**
Total	9.72	3.95	15.46	3.14	23.60**

** $p < .01$